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THE OCCUPATIONS OF THE KINDERGARTEN

ALICE TEMPLE

The occupations may be said to bear the same relation to the kindergarten programme that the industrial and art activities bear to the elementary-school curriculum. This paper will discuss the kindergarten occupations as one of its several instrumentalities, attempting to indicate certain points where the traditional occupations fail to meet the needs of child-development, and to state some of the changes and modifications which the modern kindergarten has made in both materials and methods, in the effort to meet such needs.

To the kindergartner of twenty years ago, the term occupation stood for a certain fixed set of prepared materials and a very definitely prescribed series of exercises to be carried out with each kind of material. It seems to mean much the same to the orthodox kindergartner today. To an increasingly large number of radical kindergartners, however, the term occupation has come to mean any sort of industrial or art work with plastic materials which develops the fundamental impulses of the child of kindergarten age, and which is suited in material and process to his mental and motor capacity. In order to illustrate what one school of kindergartners claims to be the "true Froebelian use" of gifts and occupations, I quote below one week's exercises taken from their programme for the year:

MONDAY

Gift.—Fourth.

Notice square faces cut into two oblongs, four oblongs, many

oblongs. Find corners; associate with activity; do not make them symbolic; corners on top and below.

Sequence of simple life-forms by imitation, as house, chest of drawers, bureau with glass, washstand, table and chair, bed, crib for baby. If time, children invent.

Occupation.—Sewing.

Horizontal lines, long and short.

TUESDAY

Gift.—Tablets.

Forms of beauty; change (spread and contrast) "giving out and coming back."

Occupation.—Sand.

Impressions of tin cubes; forms of beauty.

WEDNESDAY

Gift.—Sticks.

Squares of different sizes—inventions. Life-forms if the children make them of their own accord. Notice corners.

Occupation.—Folding.

Book. Recall derivation of square from cube of folding paper, crackers, etc. In folding, children crease with closed fist. Book, shed, screen, trough.

THURSDAY

Gift.—Fourth.

Review corners, top and below. Into how many oblongs is front face divided? Emphasize broad and narrow. Make broad gate and path. Make narrow gate and path. Bring cloth, ribbon, paper; broad and narrow, long and short.

Occupation.—Peas and sticks.

Make squares. How many sticks needed? All same length? Give two long and two short for oblongs. Make life-forms from squares and oblongs. Draw things made.

FRIDAY

Gift.—Lentils.

Develop square. Give stick with which to measure distance apart. Give smaller and larger sticks.

Occupation.—Painting.

Long strokes with brush or pasting. Fold square and cut into oblongs, then paste. Combine into border.

A thoughtful reading of this outline suggests among other things the following questions for discussion:

I. What should be the relation between the subject-matter of the programme and the use of materials?

II. Should materials be used for the purpose of making the child conscious of form, size, and number as such, or of the logical derivation of one geometric form from another?

III. Are the opportunities and incentives offered the children for originality and invention well selected?

IV. Is there psychological justification for the division of forms of expression into forms of life, forms of knowledge, and forms of beauty?

I

What should be the relation between the subject-matter of the programme and the use of materials?

The entire programme of which the matter quoted is a part is based upon (*a*) the *Mother-Plays* of Froebel, and (*b*) the gift and occupation exercises suggested by Froebel in the *Education of Man* and the *Pedagogics of the Kindergarten.* There is no relation, apparently, between the subject-matter (*a*) and the use of materials (*b*) with one or two striking exceptions. During the weeks preceding Christmas, for example, the occupation periods are devoted to the making of Christmas gifts. Again, during the week of February 22, all the exercises of the kindergarten, including of course the occupations, center about the general subject or thought for that week—*patriotism.* While one would not select the last subject as a particularly valuable or suitable one to bring to children under six years of age, yet there is a playfulness in the exercises of this week which is sadly lacking in most of the others.

Now if the child as an active, social being is to be the center of correlation (and this was Froebel's ideal) the subject-matter of the programme must be selected with reference to the child's fundamental interests and activities and the instrumentalities of the kindergarten used as various avenues for the expression of his interest in different aspects of such subject-matter. In this way the child is helped to organize his experience in a far more

natural and effective way than when unity is sought in the materials themselves on the one hand, and in the philosophical truths underlying the *Mother-Plays* on the other. Either of these methods presupposes an intellectual grasp quite beyond the power of the little child.

In suggesting the home life and occupation as suitable subject-matter for the kindergarten programme, Dr. Dewey says:

> From the child's standpoint unity lies in the subject-matter, in the present case, in the fact that he is always dealing with one thing: home life. . . . . The child is working all the time *"within a unity,"* giving different phases of its clearness and definiteness and bringing them into coherent connection with one another. When there is great diversity of subject-matter, continuity is apt to be sought simply on the formal side; that is, in schemes of sequence, "schools of work," a rigid programme of development followed with every topic, a "thought for the day" from which the work is not supposed to stray. As a rule such sequence is purely intellectual, hence is grasped only by the teacher, quite passing over the head of the child.[1]

Quite in sympathy with this line of thought we find the following expression from Professor Earl Barnes:

> Dramatic activity based on imagination, should deal also with the affairs of the home and the neighborhood. And here again they must really appeal to the child as connected with life; otherwise they are not exercises for imagination, but mere mimicry. Instead of gripping the feelings and shaping them, they stultify them. The real life of the homes from which the children come should be represented, but lifted and glorified by the play of imaginative fancy.[2]

It is quite possible, of course, to make the programme based upon the child's experiences in his immediate social environment as rigid, as formal, as the one criticized, and thus to sacrifice the child's spontaneity and freedom in the effort to secure unity and continuity. It is equally possible to keep it simple, elastic, close to the child's interests, and yet sufficiently unified on the concrete, dramatic basis which the little child can understand.

[1] "Froebel's Educational Principles," *Elementary School Record*, Vol. I, No. 5.

[2] "Fundamental Factors in the Making of a Kindergarten Curriculum," *Elementary School Teacher*, October, 1908.

II

Should materials be used for the purpose of making the child conscious of form, size, and number as such, or of the logical derivation of one form from another?

In many of the exercises given above there is every evidence that the aim is to teach the child the abstract qualities of objects as such. He makes *squares* and *oblongs* with sticks; sews *vertical* and *horizontal* lines; derives the *square* from the *cube;* develops the *square* from lines; brings cloth, ribbon, paper, which is *broad* and *narrow, long* and *short,* etc., and all this in a formal, mechanical, unrelated way. We have an excellent illustration here of emphasis upon technique apart from content or meaning. The little lesson comes first, a lesson in form, size, number, or what not; the making of life-forms follows; there is no real relation between the two. But modern thought emphasizes the fact that knowledge arises normally out of action, out of the individual's effort to realize his ends and purposes. A separation such as we have here is therefore unpsychological.

And, further, the many studies of children's interests go to show that they have no interest in the form of objects except as a means to an end. They are interested primarily in the use of objects, what they are for, what can be done with them.

> Children at first pay little heed to the aesthetic aspect of the things they use or make; the service of objects in ministering to vital needs is mainly considered and crudity will serve as well as refinement in attaining this end.[3]

> Dealing with common objects, the young children attend almost exclusively to their uses; gradually they become interested in classifying them into larger groups and in noticing their qualities.[4]

In the effort to satisfy this interest of the child in use, to help him construct objects of worth from *his* standpoint, the kindergartner of today has found that a greater variety of materials is needed as well as new ways of using them. The processes of sewing, weaving, folding, and cutting are all retained. but the materials have been enlarged in some cases and more

[3] O'Shea, *Dynamic Factors in Education,* p. 72.

[4] Barnes, *Studies in Education,* December, 1896.

durable ones substituted in others. It is the sewing and weaving materials particularly which have been enlarged because they call for a premature co-ordination of the small muscles.

> In the matter of motor development, it is clear that the eye muscles and body muscles, as well as the nerve cells of a child of four or five years of age have not attained the degree of maturity essential to perform with safety the ordinary kindergarten exercises of weaving and plaiting and threading. The effort to accomplish these tasks leads inevitably to strain and exhaustion.[5]
>
> Human sympathy founded in a desire for a healthful, robust, physical machine, would naturally help us to avoid such forms as would tend to the use of small muscles or the development of ideas not directly serviceable in the life of children.[6]

Miss Blow[7] in criticizing this general tendency to enlarge the kindergarten materials, quotes Dr. Judd as her authority. Dr. Judd does say that "the finer muscles are in full operation very early in life," that "they are the muscles which in diffuse movements are most apt to be called into action," and that "development means the selection of the right movements out of the total mass of diffuse movements." But following immediately the words quoted last we read,

> Only one limitation appears in all this provision of many movements. This is the limitation we have noted. No mechanism could be devised which would not, in the general stimulation of the muscles, affect the small muscles more than the large ones. This limitation in nature's provision for free movement is the first point at which the teacher's rational mode of developing the child must come in to supplement nature's provision. The teacher should see to it that if diffusion tends to emphasize the small muscles, teaching should emphasize in due measure the large muscles.[8]

This seems to the writer to be but another argument in favor of the wisdom of enlarging many of the kindergarten materials.

Much of the modified kindergarten occupation goes by the name of constructive work, corresponding as it does to the constructive work of the elementary school. It is the making of

[5] O'Shea, *op. cit.*, p. 156.

[6] Hatch, "Technique in Elementary Manual Training," *Elementary School Teacher*, November, 1904.

[7] *Educational Issues in the Kindergarten*, pp. 170–72.

[8] *Genetic Psychology for Teachers*, pp. 222–25.

little objects, mainly toys, of any plastic materials which are easily handled by the children and which lend themselves well to the expression of children's purposes. They may involve such processes as folding, weaving, sewing, cutting, and pasting, but the products make stronger appeal to the childish heart than those resulting from the older uses of these processes. They are objects which the child feels the need of in his play life, and the free play with the object made completes the activity and adds greatly to its value. A kindergartner who has been introducing these occupations with children brought up in the traditional handwork, tells me that these children no longer ask for their sewing-cards or weaving-mats, but beg to "make something," often suggesting what they would like to make.

One special value of such handwork has been clearly stated by Miss Hill:

> The steps or processes in the constructive occupations are so self-evident as organic means to an end, that the child can either imitate or originate them more intelligently than in the earlier flat occupations. In many of these flat occupations, the how, or processes of making are so hidden, so disguised, as organic steps leading toward a certain end, that kindergartners have had to fall back on the method of dictation, which the child often blindly follows, and when the unforeseen result is accomplished, the child is allowed to name it according to some resemblance he discovers.[9]

The objections made to constructive work by the conservative kindergartner are that (*a*) it represents the substitution of work for play; (*b*) it makes an appeal to understanding rather than an appeal to imagination; (*c*) it is a substituting of constructive activities for free self-expression.

a) In consideration of the first criticism the question at once presents itself: Is not work of this kind, in which the end to be achieved is a very immediate one and one of great interest to the child, the first and most natural form of work, and does it not belong in the kindergarten period? Interest in the product, great as it is, is not "substituted for delight in the process" but rather *added to it*. When one remembers that there is no real falling apart of means and end, but that both process and product

[9] Patty S. Hill, "The Relation of the Kindergarten and the Elementary School," *Proceedings of National Educational Association*, 1904.

are in one sense means to a further end, viz., free play with the objects made, the whole seems to be one big play-activity including within it attitudes of both play and work. And, further, it must be remembered that the constructive occupation is only one of many instrumentalities of the kindergarten, about the purely play character of which there is no question.

b) As to the second objection, that in constructive work there is appeal to understanding rather than imagination, it may be said that there is a more legitimate appeal to both than is made by the traditional occupations. The model of the object which the child makes may be supplied by the teacher or another child, or he may make his own plan. If in the process he works by imitation, at least it is conscious, intelligent imitation of steps recognized by the child as necessary ones in reaching his end. If he works out each step himself, he is getting the best kind of training in simple, logical thinking which calls for full use of the constructive imagination. Is it not in this sort of work that the child is "beginning to live in little arcs of thought, instead of mere detached points of thought" far more truly than in those sequences when he develops one form from another at the teacher's dictation? If again the child plans and executes all for himself, as he may well do when supplied with a variety of materials, there is incentive and opportunity for the maximum use of creative imagination both in the process and in the play with the product. I think anyone who had seen children as I did the other day, playing with some little cardboard street-cars which they had just completed, would have been satisfied on this latter score. They asked for blocks, built a street of houses, cut paper-dolls, and then played. The dolls came out of the houses, hailed the passing cars, went downtown to shop and returned in time for dinner. The play was a self-organized group play suggested by the little cars which the children had constructed. It is the common experience in kindergartens where toys of this kind are sometimes made, that the free play with them is often self-organized group play. Compare such an occupation and play with the folding exercise given in the Wednesday programme quoted. The children for whom this was planned are supposed

to have been in the kindergarten at least four months. They begin with recalling a previous exercise in which the square was derived from a cube of folding papers or of crackers. Then they make *one* fold in the paper according to direction and name the resulting form—book, shed, screen, or trough, as it suggests one or another of these objects. Surely there can be no question as to which makes the more legitimate appeal to understanding and imagination.

c) The third criticism, that constructive work is a substitute for free self-expression, is based upon the assumption that in this sort of occupation there is no opportunity for free self-expression. What the critics mean by free self-expression, Miss Blow illustrates thus:

> In weaving, for example, the child begins with simple combinations of number; discovers patterns as the result of this combination and thereafter through the reciprocal influence of pattern and numerical arrangement *creates interesting and beautiful designs.* In folding the beginning is made by creasing and bending paper in different ways; these creases and bends suggest simple objects and finally the child folds *with intention* to make objects.[10]

In both these illustrations the child is first shown how to manipulate the material; this suggests to him the relation between certain processes and certain results or products; he then creates designs or makes objects with intent, with purpose. The creation, the free "self-expression" seems to come with the purposeful activity. Now in constructive occupation this is exactly what happens except that in the first imitation of process the child knows what result he is going to achieve. After he has learned something of the possibilities of material through imitation, there is the same opportunity to create that is offered in the weaving or folding, with the added advantage that the possible products of his activity are far more attractive and desirable because he can carry on a play-activity with them, giving a still further opportunity for self-expression.

It must be remembered also that the believer in constructive occupation by no means uses it exclusively. Drawing, painting,

[10] *Educational Issues in the Kindergarten*, p. 265 [italics mine].

paper-cutting, clay-modeling, and design[11] have a *large* place in her programme. There is full opportunity given for free expression in all these occupations in which the child is less dependent upon guidance in the beginning.

III

Are the opportunities and incentives offered the children for invention well selected?

In the outline quoted there is some opportunity for invention. After the children have made squares of different sizes with the sticks they are allowed to make life-forms (inventions). Again, after a sequence of forms by imitation with the fourth gift, they invent "if there is time." The question at once arises as to whether this is the best method of developing the child's inventive powers. It seems to make invention as such an end in itself rather than an unconscious means to an end. There is no doubt that in his free play with material the child often hits upon a result that strikes him as valuable. He may then consciously repeat the act in order to get the product, and this may stimulate him to work for other ends. But it is this second act, the effort to realize a desired end that is the really educative one, and the one which gives his inventive powers fullest opportunity. Baldwin, in his treatment of invention, points out that the valuable thought-combinations, the inventions, arise in active mental life in the conscious direction of thought to certain useful ends.

> The whole process is a circular one. . . . . Thoughts issue in movements adapted to these thoughts. Variations in these movements react to produce variations in the thoughts. Some of these thought variations are selected. These are the inventions.[12]

When a child sets out to realize some end of his own, even though model for imitation and materials be supplied him, there is opportunity for originality in the adaptation of means to end. If he selects the material and creates the form there is still larger exercise of his inventive powers. But he is not inventing for

[11] These occupations will have fuller treatment in a later paper of this series.

[12] *Social and Ethical Interpretations*, p. 96.

the sake of inventing. Invention is the unconscious result of his successful effort to accomplish his purpose. While child purposes often originate in aimless activity, the thing which is educationally valuable is the following-up of such accidentally suggested purpose with really purposeful activity, demanding effort and originality. This is the teacher's opportunity. She too often fails to seize it.

IV

Is there psychological justification for the division of forms of expression into forms of life, forms of knowledge, and forms of beauty?

This is a division which Froebel makes in exercises with materials of whatever kind, but it is certainly one which modern thought does not indorse. The little child naturally makes no such artificial distinction between the products of his activity. As has been pointed out in this and other articles of this series, "forms of knowledge," as such, have no meaning or existence for him. The same may be said with almost equal truth of "forms of beauty." He will sometimes like a certain arrangement of units "because it is pretty" but it is practically never his only motive in the things he makes.

After making a study of children's drawings, Elmer E. Brown concludes that the development of symmetric forms merely for the sake of beauty is a late occurrence and due to the influence of older people. Burk finds that "the child has practically no interest in conventional designs nor in abstract geometrical forms."[13] Allison expresses his agreement with this general point of view in these words:

> Neither the conscious production in the interests wholly of aesthetic values, nor production of objects independent of utility, is characteristic of art in its earlier phases nor for children in the elementary schools.[14]

The art-impulse seems to be closely associated with and to grow out of the child's other instincts—the constructive and

[13] "The Genetic *versus* the Logical in Drawing," *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. IX, p. 296.

[14] "A Study in Theories of Art," *Elementary School Teacher*, March, 1905.

social instincts especially, according to Dr. Dewey.[15] Use and beauty are as yet undifferentiated by him. It would seem to be a serious mistake then to attempt to develop the aesthetic sense through the production of series of borders or symmetrical forms unrelated to any of the child's play-activities. In her use of design, therefore, the new school kindergartner gives the child opportunity to decorate the objects that he makes—if they lend themselves to decoration—or to decorate the room perhaps. She lets him select his own motive or unit for design in most cases. It is needless to say that this is rarely if ever a square, circle, or oblong. It is rather a pet animal, a flower, a snow man, Santa Claus driving his reindeer, or some other object dear to the childish heart and which it therefore gives him joy to repeat. Earl Barnes finds in his study of what children seven and eight years old think pretty, that their feeling of beauty gathers mainly around flowers, animals, dolls. A similar study of kindergarten children might give many suggestions as to what units for design we should offer them. There is a marked tendency at present to overemphasize this form of art-work.

In conclusion and by way of summary it may be said that the traditional materials and methods of using them are subject to the following criticisms:

1. The unity sought is a formal one, one existing in the materials themselves.

2. Exercises are planned for the purpose of giving the child knowledge of form, size, number, etc., apart from any felt need for such knowledge on the child's part.

3. Some of the processes with the small material demand a premature co-ordination of the fine muscles. A greater variety of substantial materials is needed.

4. There is too little recognition of the child's constructive and play instincts.

5. There is not sufficient opportunity or incentive of the right sort offered for originality and invention.

[15] *School and Society*, p. 56.

6. The threefold division of forms of expression into life, beauty, and knowledge forms is arbitrary and unnatural.

In recognition of the force of these criticisms certain changes in method and material have been made by the new school kindergartner.

1. The materials are used as a means by which the child may express the images, ideas, and play-purposes growing out of his social life. Through such expression he gradually defines and organizes his varied experiences bringing them into some sort of concrete connection with one another.

2. When materials are thus used, ideas of form, size, number, etc., follow as a necessary consequence. Exercises for the special purpose of teaching these things are discarded therefore as out of place at this stage of the child's development.

3. Many of the materials have been enlarged and some substantial ones added which lend themselves to the making of objects which the child feels the need of in his play.

4. To satisfy more fully the constructive and play instincts, the so-called constructive occupations have been introduced.

5. These constructive occupations, when rightly used, furnish both opportunity and incentive for originality and invention as means of securing desired ends.

6. Since all forms of expression are "life-forms" to the child in the sense that they have meaning and functional value to him, there is no division of his products into forms of life, beauty, and knowledge. He uses what knowledge he has in all his creative efforts, getting more as he needs it from his own experiments or the suggestions of his companions or teacher. Doubtless all of his achievements have some elements of beauty to him, although certain of them develop the aesthetic sense more than others.

THE SENTENCE AND THE VERB

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Far too many of the modern grammar-texts are at fault in their definitions of the sentence and of the verb. I quote almost at random from a few of the recent publications:

A complete thought expressed in words is a sentence;

A group of words expressing a complete thought is a sentence;

A sentence is the expression of a complete thought in words.

But grammar takes no heed as to whether the *thought* expressed in any sentence be complete or not. Grammar merely demands that the *expression* of the thought be complete, if the result shall be called a sentence. That is to say, every sentence must be a grammatical whole, having at least one subject with its predicate verb.

These definitions of the sentence hark back to the logical definition of a thought as synonymous with a *judgment*. Now the judgment, or logical proposition, is not necessarily the same thing as the sentence, and it is unfortunate for our school children that this fact has not yet been discovered by sundry book-makers. Observe, in its bearing upon this statement, the following definitions, taken from one of the most pretentious of the recent texts:

The subject of the sentence is the word or group of words which expresses the thought-subject.

The predicate is the word or group of words which expresses the thought-predicate.

The copula is the word or group of words which expresses the thought-relation.

Why Every Sentence in the English Language Must Have These Three Parts:

They beg is equal to *They are beggars* or *They are begging.*

They may write is equal to *They may be writing.*

He must go is equal to *He must be going.*

She does study is equal to *She does be studying.*

We do insist is equal to *We do be insisting.*
The boy had gone is equal to *The boy had been going.*
They have studied is equal to *They have been studying.*
His brother will have departed is equal to *His brother will have been departing.*

Every sentence in the English language not only may have three parts, but every sentence must have, either actually in it or implied in it, these three parts: subject, predicate, and copula. . . . . No matter how many or how few words a sentence may contain, it is always made up of three parts: *subject, predicate,* and *copula.*

Teaching of this kind is an attempt to fit into the English sentence the laws underlying logical propositions. The result is something that is not good logic nor good grammar nor good English. It is absolutely false that every sentence is made up of three parts; and one proof of this statement is the fact that scores of grammars of German, French, Latin, and other languages, all agree in teaching that two words properly related, namely, the subject and its predicate verb, make a sentence.

Now the term *predicate* as used in logic and the term *predicate* as used in grammar are two wholly different things. In the proposition, "Grass is green," logic calls *green* the predicate; not so grammar. And although it is true that a grammatical predicate always implies a logical copula and a logical predicate, why attempt to teach baby-logic under the name of grammar? Certainly, if this is good teaching for English, it must be also good teaching for all other modern languages; but how absurd it would be for all the Harknesses and the Ollendorfs and the Whitneys, and the rest, to set at reconstructing the texts which have taught common-sense facts about verbs for many generations!

The rather obvious fact that every grammatical sentence must imply a corresponding logical proposition was clearly pointed out in the early grammar of Professor William Fowler, of Amherst College, published over half a century ago. Four chapters of Professor Fowler's voluminous text were given to "Logical Forms." In fact, the comprehensive work was undertaken chiefly for the instruction of college students in elementary logic. But Professor Fowler knew the difference between gram-

mar and logic, and he did not get his subjects nor himself mixed. He expressly stated: "The structure of propositions in language does not always coincide with the structure of propositions in logic." And again: "Propositions which do not contain the copula may be easily resolved into those which do. Thus, 'Gold surpasses all other metals in brilliancy' may be stated, 'Gold is superior to all other metals in brilliancy.'"

Observe that Professor Fowler did not perpetrate the absurdity, "Gold *is surpassing* all other metals in brilliancy"! And is it not evident at a glance that in the pairs of sentences quoted above and declared to be equivalent, there is no real equivalence either logical or grammatical? Even if we could pardon the intolerable English of "She does be studying" and of "We do be insisting," we cannot pardon the untruthfulness of the statement that the first sentence in each pair "is equal to" the second. But is it not marvelous that the simple and obvious facts of English grammar should thus elude the grasp of numerous psychologic and pedagogic educators who feel called to make grammar-books for the mystification of the young? If it were true, as several authors state, that verbs are *necessarily* resolved into the form of predication needful to the logical statement of a judgment, it would at once be necessary to rewrite all the grammars of the modern languages used in our schools. Luckily, the microbe of a misconceived logic has not yet affected the scholarly makers of the French and German language-texts, and these still teach the sound and unassailable doctrine that a verb is a word which makes an assertion. May the infection not spread!

When the fetich of the recent grammar-book makers is not logic, it is usually psychology; and the attempted admixture of this science with grammar is worse, if possible, than in the case of logical theory. The psychological mixture results in the abandonment of words altogether, and the child is asked to wrestle with "ideas." He is told: "The *copula-idea* is that which asserts that an *attribute-idea* belongs to an *object-idea*." He is taught: "The mind is furnished (!) with five kinds of *ideas:*" and, "Interjections are the signs of *feelings,* but not of *ideas.*" And finally he is told by one normal-school professor, in

a recent pretentious text: *"The verb is a word which expresses a thought-relation."* This definition forces its author to classify the verb and the preposition together as "words of relation," which he calmly proceeds to do. But will the educational public receive without protest such distortion of grammatical truth?

It is important that every teacher of grammar in America recognize the fallacy in this position, for almost surely a dozen new texts will hasten to repeat the error within a twelve-month. Is it not obvious that *every possible grammatical construction shows thought-relation of some sort?* And is not the subject of syntax an attempt to reduce to a system thought-relations as shown by words? Predication is no more an expression of "thought-relation" than is apposition or any other construction. The moment two words are used in juxtaposition they express some thought-relation in the mind of the speaker. Whether we say to the baby, "Sugar—sweet," in the natural mother-way of the untutored savage, or, "The sugar is sweet," in the artistic mode of grammatical art, the "thought-relation" is identical in the two expressions.

The preposition is a relation-word not because it expresses thought-relations more absolutely than do other parts of speech, but because it expresses actual relations of every sort which exist in fact, as of place, position, source, direction, and the like. No other part of speech except the preposition expresses relations thus, although subordinate conjunctions shade into prepositions. It is immaterial whether we say, *The dress was blue,* or *It was a blue dress,* or *It was a dress of blue.* The *thought-relation* in these three expressions is identical, whether it is implied by the adjective, or expressed by the preposition, or asserted by the verb.

It is peculiarly unfortunate that this last glaring misconception of the function of the verb should be added to the long list of previous errors befogging the minds of teachers and of pupils. Once again, be it said with all possible emphasis, *every syntactical relation is a thought-relation.*

The failure to see that there is a marked difference between the proposition of logic and the sentence of grammar is usually

accompanied by another failure—that of not comprehending the real nature of the verb. Not a text yet published, so far as I am able to determine, recognizes that free and varied communication of thought may occur without the use of verbs. Apparently it has been wholly forgotten that the verb was the last part of speech to be differentiated, and that there are still uncivilized tribes which have not yet developed the verb. It would be absurd to claim that these tribes neither think nor communicate thought. They do communicate thought easily enough, although they have not as yet developed that particular art-form which we call the sentence.

Originally all words were names. In order to show thought-relation of various sorts the simple method of *apposition,* or of placing words side by side, was first invented. Gradually, the adjective and then the other parts of speech were differentiated, and last of all the verb. This fact seems not to have come to the knowledge of many writers who state that "Young children use many verbs among their first words." The reverse is true: very young children use almost no verbs at all. What is mistaken for verbs are the numerous "action words," or verbal nouns, which are as truly nouns to the child and to the grammarian as are any other names of sense-objects. But how long shall this truth be ignored?

The time is almost here when the truth that the modern sentence is an *art-product* must be recognized. The sentence is the norm of cultivated expression, although it is not essential to the communication of thought. Whether or not we think in sentences can be determined in any individual case only by learning the habit of that individual. But that one's thinking depends upon the number and clearness of his ideas, and that these in turn depend upon the vocabulary which has been mastered, is the really vital truth which language-teaching is bound to recognize if it is ever to get upon a sound basis. Luckily for our graded schools, college presidents are at last beginning to take an interest in elementary principles, and one college president, Mr. Edwin W. Doran, of Mississippi, has published rather startling figures

as the result of ten years' work in investigating vocabularies of elementary pupils.[1]

Professor Brander Matthews, of Columbia University, very justly said that the modern grammar-texts of America are usually "grotesque in their ignorance." But the most grotesque of them all—those which try to marry logic and grammar, or psychology and grammar—had not been written when Professor Matthews made his famous criticism. Bad as many of the earlier texts were, at least they had not forgotten that grammar deals with *words* rather than with *ideas,* and that a verb is a word which makes an assertion.

It is high time that a reaction should set in against the false grammatical theory now exploited in many recent texts. What the schools need in this line is an elementary course in old-fashioned grammar, unadulterated with logic or psychology. And, incidentally, in steering clear of Scylla, let us not sail into the jaws of Charybdis by trying to unite literature and grammar. Any eighth-grade class which has been well trained in English can easily master elementary grammar in a year, if the grammar is really grammar. But when misunderstood logic is added to equally misunderstood psychology and a heavy dose of literature is spread over all, there is little hope for the floundering child. Then speed the day when every school shall offer a short, intensive, but comprehensive course in grammar pure and simple, divested of every scrap of logic, of literature, or of psychology!

[1] *Pedagogical Seminary,* December, 1908.

THE SCHOOL CLUB, THE SCHOOL GARDEN, AND CORRELATED SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

A. MONROE STOWE
State Normal School, Hyannis, Mass.

While at first thought there may seem to be little possible relation between the school club and the school garden, the former organized and conducted by the pupils of the upper elementary school to accomplish certain results which appeal to them as worthy of their efforts and which can be achieved only through co-operation, and the latter fast becoming a part of the curriculum, still the school club may be utilized by the school not only to make the work in gardening more interesting to the pupils, but also to assist in correlating with that work social and civic activities as well as school studies. It is the object of the present paper to indicate very briefly some of the ways in which the school club may be thus utilized.

The school club has just been defined as a club organized and conducted by the pupils of the upper elementary school to accomplish certain results which appeal to them as worthy of their efforts and which can be achieved only through co-operation. While this implies that the aims of the club must be very definite, yet if the club is to be an efficient agency for assisting the school in its endeavors to realize its educational ideals such as, for example, the vitalization of the curriculum, there must be tucked away somewhere in the constitution of the club an "elastic clause" which will permit it to undertake almost any form of work which may at any time interest the majority of its members. If there is such an "elastic clause" in the constitution of the school club, it should not be difficult to interest the members in the subject of gardening, since in most schools the pupils look forward with pleasure to their work in the garden. Indeed, in the majority of cases this interest will have to be molded rather than created, it will have to be socialized by developing it into a club or com-

munity interest. This club interest may be awakened by proposing that the money made from a vegetable garden go into the club treasury to be expended by the club for some specified purpose, e. g., the purchase of books for the school- or village-library. While to some this proposition may appear to savor of the "commercial," the "utilitarian," yet if accepted and worked out, it will offer many opportunities to introduce naturally and to present through vital experiences many school subjects as well as to teach many valuable lessons in the appreciation of the value of money.

If then our school club has become so interested in the subject of gardening that it has decided to organize all or a part of its members—the number depending upon the number who are to take the work—into a Committee on Gardening, entire charge of the garden may be given to this committee who should be impressed with their responsibility to make it as successful as possible from the financial point of view as well as from the standpoint of a model garden. While formerly there may have been little co-operation in the garden work due to the lack of a community feeling, there will now be more and more efficient co-operation as the community interests become stronger and stronger through their development in the organization and work of the Committee on Gardening.

As there is much important work to be done before work is begun in the garden, the organization of the Committee on Gardening ought not be delayed too long. Before proceeding with the election of the chairman and the secretary-treasurer, who is to keep the minutes of the committee and make regular reports to the club concerning what is being done, the committee should take time to discuss what qualifications make for a good officer, especially one to hold the office which it is about to fill. The result of such discussion will generally be the election of a pupil well qualified for the office. If this preliminary discussion takes place before all school-club elections, there will gradually be developed a habit of taking elections seriously, of weighing carefully the qualifications of the candidates, and of casting one's vote for the candidate considered best qualified, a habit

which, if once formed and made permanent, will do much to reform political conditions in the near future. Thus even the work preliminary to gardening may be made to contribute toward the training of our pupils in and for citizenship.

After it has organized itself the Committee on Gardening may proceed to a discussion of what should be done before seed-planting time, the chair being occupied by the chairman and the teacher as adviser simply guiding the discussion. Much of this preliminary work, however, can be best taken up in class, leaving some of the following concrete, practical problems for discussion in committee:

1. From what vegetables shall we derive the most profit?

2. What method of caring for the garden shall we adopt? Shall we plant our vegetables in beds, each member having a plot, or shall we plant them in rows, each pupil being responsible for certain rows?

3. Which of these methods is favored by the kinds of vegetables we desire to raise? By the space we have at our disposal?

4. Which vegetables will grow best in this climate and in the soil of our garden?

After the Committee on Gardening has discussed the above problems, a special committee including the teacher might be chosen to draw up a plan for the garden, a task which will enable the pupils to utilize their knowledge of ratio and proportion in drawing the plan to a scale. When the report of the special committee has been approved, the Committee on Gardening with the help of seed catalogs obtained from seed firms will be able to figure upon the kind, amount, and cost of the seeds needed. While this committee is now ready to purchase its seed, it finds itself in the position of a man who desires to begin business but cannot do so until he obtains the necessary capital. What an excellent opportunity for introducing in a perfectly natural way the subject of borrowing money, promissory notes, interest, and even bank discount! How these subjects lose their abstract character when the committee is allowed by the teacher to borrow from some person connected with the school what money it needs for seeds and incidentals, giving a note signed by the secretary-treasurer for the committee and indorsed by the teacher as adviser! What a natural introduction to the subject of banks

of deposit is offered when the secretary-treasurer deposits with the treasurer of the club the money borrowed and receives an account book and check book similar to those issued by banks of deposit except that "Treasury of School Club" is substituted for the name of a bank. If possible the other members of the Committee on Gardening should be furnished with duplicate books in order that they may keep duplicate records. There will be considerable practice in keeping accounts on the stubs as well as making out, indorsing, and presenting checks for payment, when checks are made out for money to be remitted with the various orders for seeds. In order to present through vital experience another phase of the subject the teacher may instruct the treasurer of the club how to keep the accounts of the Committee on Gardening and how to make monthly reports so that at the beginning of the following month the treasurer may give to the secretary-treasurer the canceled checks together with a statement similar to those rendered at the beginning of the month by banks of deposit.

The orders to which reference has just been made may be written by all of the pupils, the best copies being chosen to be sent to the seed firms and the secretary-treasurer being instructed to make checks payable to the pupils whose orders are to be sent. The necessity of sending remittances with these orders is a natural reason for introducing the subject of ways of making remittances through the mail, a subject which may be made more concrete to the pupils by allowing each to fill out properly an application for post-office money order in favor of one of the seed firms. When the proper applications have been filled out, a committee of three may be chosen to purchase the money orders and to report what takes place at the post-office. Following upon this report may come an account of what becomes of the duplicate orders as well as how the original orders are cashed, while the study of bills may be looked upon as following naturally upon the receipt of receipted bills for the seeds ordered.

While actual work in the garden, for which the pupils are now prepared, may go on much as in former years, the observant teacher will notice less of purely selfish individual effort and

more of healthy and friendly co-operation, for the members of the Committee on Gardening are working out a plan to which all have given their approval and for the success of which all are earnestly striving moved by many motives, not the least important of which is the desire to have a model garden and to make their first financial undertaking a success. Thus by transforming individual effort into social co-operation as well as by offering wonderful opportunities for introducing naturally and presenting through vital experiences a number of important school studies, the school club through its Committee on Gardening may be of great assistance to the school in its endeavors to realize not only its purely educational ideal, the vitalization of its curriculum, but also its social ideal, the development of men and women trained to co-operate for the common good and welfare of their communities.

THE FUNCTION OF THE FARM SCHOOL

Quite a story lies behind the letter printed below. In the spring of 1908 the principal of one of the public schools of Dubuque, Mr. B. J. Horchem, purchased a small farm beyond the outskirts of the city. It was very much run down, as the illustration shows. A tenant was put in possession and by the time the schools closed in June, repairs on the house were well on the way. The new owner did not invest in the farm either for personal profit or for the luxury of a summer residence, but because he wanted to try an experiment. He felt that the city boys, such as those in his school, needed something other than two months of idleness and mere play, and something other than the work in the shops, which in any event but few were old enough to undertake. Having been brought up on a farm himself, it seemed to him that farm life offered a solution of the problem presented.

An invitation having been given to some of the leaders among the boys to "come out and help," nearly twenty responded and came with more or less regularity throughout the two months. The result as far as the boys were concerned, were so satisfactory that Mr. Horchem is anxious to continue and expand his experiment into a permanent summer school. He has two plans in view, one of which might be called the immediate and the transitory, and the other a more thoroughgoing scheme, involving the entire reorganization of the school-system.

In the first place he wants the boys of a manufacturing city to know something of what the farm offers, before the pressure of circumstances forces them into shop or office work or into unskilled labor.

He believes that even one summer can serve to implant the germs of an ideal of the opportunity and rewards of farm life. He said that he would willingly take an entirely new set of boys to his farm next year, in order that others might see for themselves what otherwise they might never appreciate—that there is a world of work outside the factory and that there are other

fields of employment to choose from. Nearly one hundred boys are making plans for this farm for the coming summer.

Some of the educational views of the author of this experiment follow the letter.—EDITOR.

PARK HILL FARM SCHOOL

President—ROBERT E. YOUNG
Manager—AMOS F. PALEY
Secretary—ADALBERT T. WALLER
Treasurer—J. RUSSELL JOHNSTON

DUBUQUE, IA.
November 17, 1908

Mr. John Morrison, Dubuque, Iowa:

DEAR MR. MORRISON: Inclosed please find some of the pictures which were taken of some of us boys while at work on the farm during the summer.

No. 1 shows where some of us thought that it would be fine exercise to fix up the roadway.

No. 2 will give you an idea of how the approach looked after it had been finished.

No. 3 will give you an idea of how we used to go and come from work occasionally.

No. 4 shows you how we enjoyed playing or working around the barley stack.

No. 5—We were preparing a park around the tent you so kindly loaned us.

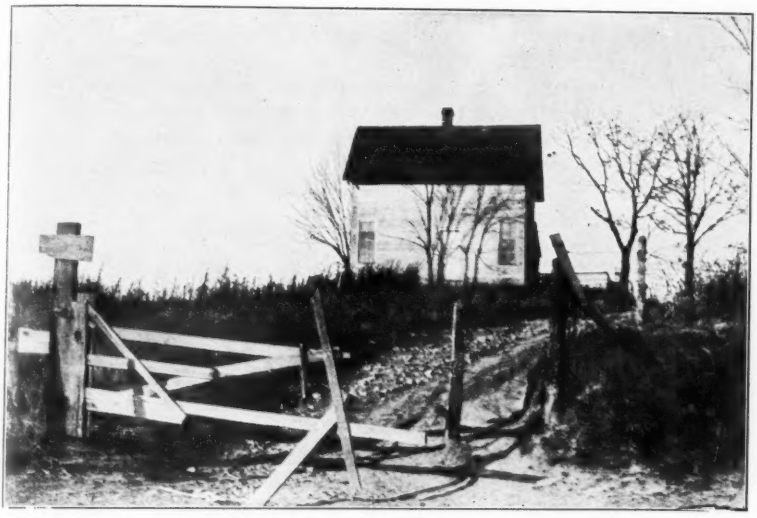
No. 6—We are planning on civic improvement around the tent.

No. 7—How we petted the cows when we had nothing else to do.

We regret that you did not find it convenient to visit us during the summer. As a whole we had a pleasant and profitable vacation. Professor Horchem suggests that we give you a short account of our efforts. In regard to the work we did, we must say that some of us did report to our parents when we came home and did not explain anything in particular. When they would say that they doubted if we did anything, we would reply that we did so many things that we could not remember anything in particular.

We did many different things. We learned much. We hoed vegetables, cultivated, fertilized, picked peas, also other vegetables, husked corn, went to market, and had other experiences in farming.

Our first taste of farm life was hoeing. We hoed the cabbages. Some of us hardly knew how to hoe, but now we consider ourselves experts. Then we cultivated onions. Of course we cut quite a few off, but we have learned much and would not do such a thing any more.



THE HOUSE AS WE FOUND IT

THE BARN AS WE FOUND IT

We all remember the time when we fertilized the tomatoes.

One of our most constant occupations was picking peas, of which there was a large patch.

Then came market days, when we took our produce to market. The first time the buggy was driven to market, it contained the general manager and the treasurer. These two officers went in their wide-brimmed rustic straw hats, upon which was showered a great deal of ridicule. Their first experience at marketing was not very pleasant. We all had a good laugh at their expense afterward. After that we took turns going to market, always taking care that we did not have our straw hats on. We hired a stand at the market, and there we could be found, selling our peas, beans, carrots, cabbages, beets, and other vegetables.

We carried our dinners, which we ate in the tent. Our suppers were cooked by Mrs. Honkomp, the lady of the place. We either ate them in the tent or in the shade outside. It is needless to say that we enjoyed the supper in the open, free air. We always slept well and feel that our condition has been physically benefited.

We did not work every day, sometimes three times a week, and sometimes only twice. During the hottest part of some days we played in the shade or rehearsed our band composed of such tin instruments as we could gather together. We had many lively debates, disputes, and discussions concerning our work, novels we had read, or topics concerning the welfare of the country; so you can see that we learned a great deal in discussing various things while we were working or taking a rest in the tent.

The most disagreeable part of the whole thing was the walk home. We did not fancy this journey, especially after the day's work.

There were many other boys that wanted to join, but we felt that there were no accommodations for so many, and that it would be too hard on Mrs. Honkomp to cook for them all.

We feel that to have a great many boys to take part it would be best to start early in spring with hotbeds and to have boys by fours to take plats of ground and start out in a scientific manner.

In the spring we will start early with hotbeds and incubators. We will work after school and Saturdays. We will engage in the raising of chickens, having, of course, a competent man to attend them in our absence. We will have a large number of new recruits, who, of course, will have their experience next summer, while we, the officers of the "Farm," and those who have had their experience last summer, will work in a more general way this summer teaching the new boys the things with which they are not familiar. There will also be a large number of boys who will join us, once the other boys inform them of their first taste of farm life.

We have suggested to Professor Horchem, and he has agreed to do all he can toward making arrangements by which we could have an orchard,

PREPARING FOR THE TENT

CIVIC IMPROVEMENTS

so that we could trim, prune, bud, and spray the trees. We would thereby get practice in taking care of fruit trees, and perhaps be able to make a little to help pay our expenses.

We are going to make an appeal to Professor Horchem to be permitted to edit a small journal, to which the boys and officers will contribute. It will be published monthly. It will inform the boys of all the markets, besides giving them helpful literature on farming.

We worked two or three days a week—that is, part of the time, for we were not without recreation. There was the cool, shady grove nearby, where we could play games, and the tent, where we could talk over the events of the day, and debate various questions, as stated above.

During the next summer, we will take short trips, such as the La Motte one, to various points of interest around here on the way to and fro noticing the methods of the most successful farmers and other things concerning our work.

And then, if we raise enough, which will not be improbable, we will go by wagon to the wilds of Wisconsin, the Dells of the Wisconsin River, for instance, for a week or two's camping.

Next summer a new barn will be erected in place of the old one seen in the cut. This will be quite an improvement on the old one.

Each boy will have so much ground to cultivate. He will be allowed to grow on it whatever he likes. At times all the boys will set to beautifying the whole place. They will have a taste of all kinds of work. If the roadway needs fixing, the boys will do it. A gate might be mended, or a fence repaired. The tents will have to be put up, the canvas mended. A small park should be laid out around the tents. The flowers would need care.

The cities and towns produce ten no-accounts and criminals where the country produces one or two, and this seems to be almost entirely due to the fact that on the farm the boy has something to do and does not spend his time loafing on the streets. It is a matter of common observation as well as of statistics that the bums and criminals with which the country is cursed come almost entirely from boys and girls who do not go to school or have no regular and definite work during the formative years, from nine to eighteen.

The life of the student is dissociated from the life of his home and his neighbors. He is taken away from and unfitted for the duties of his home and community. The school helps to make him feel strange in his own home and neighborhood instead

FIXING THE ROADWAY

GOING TO WORK

of helping him the better to understand and more thoroughly to enter into life about him.

There is no more edifying, dignified, and profitable occupation than that of agriculture, which is conducted in an intelligent, scientific, and painstaking manner. Through a "beautiful and bountiful garden" or a small farm, the working-classes can be shown how to shun the evils which arise from unsanitary and insufficient housing conditions, and how to secure after working hours and at their leisure some advantages of outdoor garden life, with opportunities for natural and beautiful occupation. By cultivating the soil, enough vegetables can be raised in a small garden, and enough eggs and meats can be secured from the poultry to pay more than half the grocery bill. Such gardens should lead many to see the advantages of land and cause many of them to leave the dark, dusty, and unhealthy city for fresh air and profitable undertaking. It is equally true that the children of the wealthy dwellers in hotels or apartment houses are in need of the freedom, the habit of work, and the interests that are developed by this outdoor life of productive activity.

Beside creating a love for the beautiful in nature, a love for a garden will in turn cause a love for a home and the desire to keep it up and improve it, and indirectly create a sentiment for larger public improvements, such as parks. We must begin with children, if we desire to continue and develop our civic pride.

The school ought to be a great beehive, buzzing with industry. We must find ways of letting the child live a more natural life, consisting of work and play, in both of which he will have more and more chance for initiative in proportion as he develops power of self-control and of controlling others.

By the time a boy has finished his eighth school year he should know whether he wants to be a carpenter, a farmer, or a professional man. He should therefore be placed in environments that permit observation of varied occupations. He should not only see the growing of fruits, vegetables, and grains for pleasure, but for profit, and he should be brought into contact with many industries, that he may have some intelligent basis for choice of the one he has the interest and capacity to follow. This

experience should enable him to take more intelligent direction of his own course and thus save valuable time and costly experience.

Our present system of education is a terrible mistake. It is a mistake from every point of view. It is a mistake in so far as the mere acquirement of knowledge is concerned. The mind cannot assimilate beyond a certain rate. If forced with facts faster than it can master them, they will soon be rejected again. They will not be permanently built into the intellectual fiber, but fall out of recollection after the examination for which they were gathered. It is a mistake because it makes study distasteful. It is a mistake to weaken and to destroy energy without which a trained intellect is useless. Success could not compensate for ill-health, which would make failure doubly bitter. Herbert Spencer gave these facts over a half-century ago.

In our present system of study the children are not the determining factors in planning the course of study. The course of study is the main consideration. In every school teachers are specializing more and more from year to year. The curriculum is specialized, but not upon any rational grouping of children, or the innate power or ability of the children.

Someone must break away from tradition. The public schools cannot do it. If it has to come through the normal school the process is too slow. It must be started by those who have taught in the country schools, graded schools, and high schools, and who have made a study of the "doctrine of interest." Who can say what would be the power for good in the establishment of a farm school, by one who knows what he wants, what men and women he wants; one who prepares his pupils through them in such a way that each pupil will feel that he has a part to play in life, and that he should know his part and play it well, instead of preparing for a special mark from grade to grade, from grades to high school, and from high school to the colleges and the universities?

We cannot make artists out of pupils by placing them in an art gallery. They must understand the sentiments and conception of the artist before they can really understand the picture. So

it is with work; so it is with play; so it is with study; so it is with nature. The boy does not appreciate the work of the soil, heat, and moisture until he gets in contact with work in the garden, or on the farm. He can be made to understand how an apparently worthless piece of ground can be made into one of the most attractive, pleasing, and profitable places in the community.

While the boy studies the growth of things, he also studies physics, chemistry, and botany. When he studies birds, trees, and animals, his love and desire for the beautiful is developed. When he builds his fences and pigeonhouses, and helps to make sidewalks, he secures a technical training which will involve mathematics. He will learn all about board-measure and the composition of concrete. He will look at plans and specifications and obtain the best authorities by consulting the best local architects and contractors, and read books and magazines on the subjects in which he is most interested. It will cause him to write to men of affairs, which will put him in business relations with the wider world. Natural conditions will be established, and each pupil will play his part, the part he can play best in life.

The kitten uses its paws and so learns how to handle them when compelled to. So the boys in this business course are coming into closer touch with real business, which now is growing up with the school and the world outside of it. The boys are not supposed to work all the time.

During twenty-five years of experience as a high-school teacher, county superintendent, and principal of a ward school, the writer has observed that not 65 per cent. of the boys finish the eighth grade. They are usually boys that wish to do things. They don't care about our superlatively correct language. They not only want to know things but have the habit of doing things. They don't want our present dose of education. All our pleading and forcing cannot retain them, even the best of them. Our methods are too bookish. If any change is made, it must be made by someone who has had the experience in grade work and who has been accustomed to consider the gradual development of the child through the grades, one who is not dominated by college

entrance examinations, one who will do away with much drill, too much cram, and too narrow a range of subjects, but will always consider the development of the child. The man who makes a success of the new school must have the qualifications of a president of a university. According to Dr. Jordan's view

> it will be the duty of such a man to create a peculiar school-atmosphere. He must set the pace, must frame its ideals, choose the men in whom those ideals can be realized. It is through the men he chooses that the new school will become a living thing. This man must co-operate with his helpers. His noblest work is that of maker of leaders. It is not what he himself can do, that first concerns the school. His personal powers, skill, or versatilities are of little moment. It will be what he can discern and divine in others that will gauge his success. It will be his instinct to know what the best work of others may be, and how he can use it in the fabric he is building. Long head and long patience he must needs have, for he will often wait years for men to grow to what he expects of them, and others to whom he can look for the right kind of growth. He must have the instinct to judge men, and to estimate what men say of men. He must be keen to recognize in others qualities of worth, which he himself may not possess. He must have the wisdom to foster individual freedom and the firmness to check that freedom that spends itself in futile, erratic, and sentimental effort.

GENERAL PLAN FOR PRACTICAL EDUCATION

1. Schools to be in the suburbs of our cities.

2. Schools to be in session the entire year, but only half the time to be spent indoors. Schoolroom work to be done chiefly in the winter and in bad weather.

3. Less deskwork. More laboratory, shop, and garden work. The active aspect of education now seen chiefly in the kindergarten to be maintained throughout the grades.

4. Initiative to be taken by children. All the leading trades, occupations, and professions to be carried on and opportunities to be open for the study of the same under trained workers. When at work under this direction, in field or shop, the need of further theoretic study or knowledge is found by the pupil and he will go to the schoolroom to get the needed work.

5. No written examinations. The test of ability will be found in the work done. If work is well done, examination is unneces-

sary; if poorly done, there is evident need for further study and effort. There should be no more need of formal examination here than in the business world.

Education is life—not preparation for life.

Interest is wanting to know what to do next.

Wisdom consists in knowing what to do next.

Virtue is the doing.

Civilization has not advanced by *words*, but by *acts* and *deeds*.

To plan *action* is the duty of the school.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The Problem of History in the Elementary School

History in the elementary school presents a problem and an opportunity. The problem has been ably discussed by Professor Henry Johnson of the Teachers College. He has criticized the imaginative history which looks for its construction largely to the child and insists that real history from the hands and heads of competent historians is a pabulum that if properly presented is quite digestible for children in the elementary school, and he has presented illustrations in his study on "History in the Elementary School." It is not too much to say that the material which Professor Johnson suggests can be unhesitatingly recognized as proper for the school and its pupils. The question is rather whether the material is adequate to the task which history has to meet in the elementary school.

The Teaching of History as an Opportunity

History is the philosophy of the child and of many who are no longer children. It is history which must interpret the curriculum if it is to be interpreted to the elementary-school pupil. It is history which must connect the conceptions of the child with the institutions and life of the community about him. Consider for example how essential history is to such an admirable textbook in civics as that written by Professor Dunn, *The Community and the Citizen,* with its outline of the beginnings of the community, its site, what the people are seeking in the community, the family, and the services rendered to the community by the family, the making of Americans, etc. The great difficulty is that our histories are as yet histories only of politics. It is only a few of the industries, such as that of cotton on account of its vivid political interest, that are given their real value in the making as life of the community.

The nub of the problem is found in the relation of this material to the child's intelligence. It is true that such material as that which Professor Johnson presents, can be made intelligible to

the child. The question is whether this is the material which the child needs. And the answer to this question can only be given when we know what the child needs to have explained to him. In this sense it is important that the child should be almost as active in the direction of his historical study as is the graduate student who is at work on some historical problem that has become his own. For this function of history there is no study that should be so flexible and so pervasive in the whole curriculum, none in which the child's easy passage from imaginative processes to those of observation and reasoning should be more evident. History in the elementary school should be what was called "music" in the Greek child's education, the meaning of the life and the institutions about him, stated in social terms.

Social Situations the Terms in which Children think

The most important phase of history as the groundwork of the child's instruction is its concrete social character. We are just beginning to appreciate to what an extent children do and must do their thinking in social forms. If a child undertakes to define an object or a situation his irresistible tendency is to describe it as part of the activity of some person—e. g., a crime is "when a cop arrests you." It is through social situations that children carry out their generalizations and draw their conclusions, and it is the province of the school to make a continuous intellectual discipline out of this native capacity of children, through the historical treatment of as many subjects in the curriculum as possible. As the method of children's thinking history is not only the philosophy but the logic of the elementary-school curriculum.

NOTES AND NEWS

Reports from London give some interesting details of some experiments, which could be duplicated, partially, at least, in many schools, showing the conditions under which children can do their best work. A schoolroom was fitted with apparatus by which the temperature could be regulated and kept at any point between fifty and eighty degrees. Other apparatus was used to increase the humidity, and to secure movement and change of air, whenever desired.

The results of the experiments given briefly are as follows: When the atmospheric conditions are favorable, mental alertness, and accuracy are improved by two or three hours of work. Temperatures in excess of sixty-five degrees indicate hurtful conditions, giving rise to symptoms of inattention, slackness, and headaches. But if the air is kept constantly moving temperatures in excess of sixty-five will not prove harmful; and even at higher temperatures movement and change of air ameliorate the harmful conditions somewhat. But at seventy and above marked symptoms of deterioration in alertness and accuracy are very evident, whatever the atmospheric conditions.

Commissioner Draper has recently supplemented his late report on Industrial Education with an address on "Agricultural Education in the Public School System;" he sums up the conclusions as regards the work of the rural elementary school as follows, which he calls "suggestions concerning the educational basis of agricultural interests":

There should be a complete and interrelated system of schools, elementary, secondary, and higher, open to all, and essentially under the control of the people of the state.

The elementary school should be within reach of every farmer's home. So long as the school is adequately sustained and competently taught, the location may be left to the people of the district. It is more a question of expediency than of educational principle, and there is no balance of advantages in school-concentration to justify forcefully overthrowing an established order.

The elementary schools are to teach the elements of an all-around English education. They cannot specialize much and they are not to be in any sense exclusive. They are to aim at fitting children for the choice of any vocation they may prefer and for beginning the preparation therefor. They are always to preach the gospel of work, and to use books and objects and methods to stimulate quite as much interest—in the country, perhaps, more interest—in agriculture as in any other industry. This should be guarded in making the elementary syllabus. The work of the elementary schools in the country as in the city should not dawdle and waste time through the multiplicity of books and the idle exploitation of pedagogical theories and methods. It

should be definite quantitatively as well as efficient qualitatively. The attendance laws should be enforced in the country as in the city, even though the extent of child labor on the farm and the distance from the school make neglect of the law very frequent and the difficulties of enforcement very great. The course should be simplified and shortened and the child brought to the end of it, with the assurance that he has some definite knowledge and measure of efficiency by the time he is fourteen years old. Better professional supervision should establish some satisfactory basis of graduation from the country elementary school, and graduation should qualify the pupil for admission to the high school, or a district agricultural school.

Massachusetts has a playgrounds act which should prove suggestive to other states. Every city or town in the state which has a population of 10,000 or more, and which shall vote to accept the provision of the act, shall be privileged, after July 1, 1910, to provide and maintain one public playground, conveniently located and of suitable size and equipment, for the recreation and physical education of the minors of the community; and at least one additional other playground for every additional 20,000 of population. The communities may appoint their own qualified supervisors and determine their compensation. Land may be secured for these purposes by public condemnation, as for other public purposes, and the community is empowered to raise the money therefor by taxation; and the community may, in order to meet the situation, incur indebtedness beyond the limit of municipal indebtedness to an amount not to exceed ½ of 1 per cent. of the assessed valuation. It will not be necessary to establish a sinking fund for the payment of this increased indebtedness, unless the community so desires. A majority of the voters in any city or town can make the act effective. Twenty-three communities have already voted to take advantage of the provisions of the act.

Advance sheets of the *Report of the Commissioner of Education* give some very interesting data as to educational progress during 1908. The schools of the country enrolled, last year, about nineteen millions of pupils of all grades and classes. That is to say, about 20 per cent. of the total population of the country attended the common schools for a longer or shorter period. The total expenditure by the public schools for the year was about three hundred and thirty millions of dollars.

A remarkable feature of the past year is found in the public interest in education as shown in the great number of educational commissions which have been and are at work investigating various phases of the educational situation. Ten states appointed such commissions. The work which they have undertaken is too varied to be specified in detail here but it is a subject well worth attention on the part of those interested in our larger public pedagogy. Technical and vocational education is one of the more prominent factors to be investigated. Massachusetts, Maryland, and

New Jersey each appointed a commission to provide better plans for this work.

A most encouraging phase of the work of the year is seen in the large number of voluntary educational organizations that have been established. These are both local and national in extent and import. This method of bringing issues to the larger social consciousness is being used more and more. It used to be thought that there must be something wrong with the interest that had to rely upon voluntary support in a country where the people rule, and where they ought to be able to get everything they want. But it is seen, now, that this is the best way of determining what it is the people actually do want.

But educational forces and issues are taking on an international aspect, also. During 1908 at least nine great international congresses, devoted to the problems of public and social education, were held. Congresses on the welfare of the child, on industrial education, moral education, household economy, popular education, etc., were very prominent. It is becoming more and more apparent that the problem of education is a world-wide problem, and not a merely local issue.

Recent numbers of the *Psychological Clinic* have contained considerable material of service to teachers. In the January number Dr. Roland P. Falkner, ex-commissioner of education for Porto Rico, presents "Some Uses of Statistics in the Supervision of Schools." He is chiefly interested in the economic results that follow from the proper employment of statistical data by the superintendent. He shows that in 1904–5 Porto Rico had fewer schools than in the previous year, but over 3,000 more children were in these schools. This result was obtained by the efforts of the district superintendents, spurred on by the admonitions and the reports of the commissioner's department. As another illustration Dr. Falkner finds in a school-report for an American city that the average registration per teacher was 42.08, the average roll per teacher 32.01, and the average attendance 30.3. These figures show that the school-system is not utilizing these teachers to the full extent, and yet a considerable number of children were in half-day sessions.

Whether half-day sessions are a detriment to the progress of the pupils or not, requires statistical examination. In three rooms in Camden, N. J., half-day pupils in 1905–6 made better percentage of promotions than the all-day pupils of the preceding year under the same teachers. In one case a contrary result was observed. Under these circumstances—and these are the only records of the kind available—Dr. Falkner contends that we cannot be sure that half-day classes for beginners in the first grade are a positive evil.

Another article takes up the question of "Elimination of Pupils from School," classifying some of the cities of the United States according to

the percentages of loss throughout the grades. The city of Worcester, Mass., is in the class which loses less than 40 per cent. before the eighth grade. New York, Chicago, and Minneapolis lose between 65 and 70 per cent.; Cincinnati and St. Louis lose between 75 and 80 per cent.; whereas Philadelphia and Baltimore lose over 80 per cent.

The conclusions of the White House Conference on Children should be of interest to every teacher. Professor Henderson said once: "There is only one thing nobler than being a school-teacher, and that is to be a teacher." Interest in such work as that done by President Roosevelt's White House Conference indicates the teacher as distinct from the mere school-teacher. The full report of the conference appears in a current number of *Charities and The Commons* as "A Programme of Child-Caring Work." It should be in the hands of every teacher, and every school-teacher, too. This report deals with home care, preventive work, home-finding, state inspection of child-saving agencies, physical care of children, undesirable legislation, and the formation of a federal children's bureau. A thoroughgoing programme is outlined. When summarized it amounts to this: "The particular conditions and needs of each destitute child should be carefully studied and he should receive that care which his individual needs require, and which should be as nearly as possible like the life of the other children of the community." Has the teacher any responsibility in connection with this programme?

School Hygiene, the journal of the American School Hygiene Association, has been presenting some most valuable materials on the subject which it represents. But the journal has reached the point where it must have increased support if it is to continue its work. Its aim is "to secure improved school conditions for children, to awaken public interest in their welfare so that needed improvements can be obtained, and to report progress in this movement." The movement is worthy of more liberal support.

The editor of the *Psychological Clinic* has been attempting to criticize the so-called "Emanuel Movement" out of existence. He contends that "Dr. Worcester and his collaborators have reported no results as yet which establish satisfactory proofs of the efficiency of their methods." But his criticisms of what he calls the "Yellow Psychology" of Professor Münsterberg and the revived "occultism" of Professors James and Royce, are especially interesting. He contends that Professor James has been, throughout his course, "distinguished by an unscientific attitude, and that he has produced no results which have had any effect upon the development of modern psychology." All of which, of course, reads like the questions which Rip Van Winkle asked after his twenty years of sleep.

BOOK REVIEWS

Systematic Study in the Elementary Schools. By LIDA BELLE EARHART, PH.D. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1908. Pp. 90+9 Tables.

The century-old emphasis upon psychology as the guide in education is destined to yield sooner or later to some direction inherent in the current revival and reconstruction of logic. This study is a pioneer in its special field of analysis of teaching practice. It presents a more or less psychological account of the conditions and the emergence of logical dependence among pupils in the elementary school. At the same time it shows one source of the pedagogical waste of time and effort, and becomes a criticism of the logical aspects of textbooks in the hands of pupils. The first two chapters sketch inductive and deductive procedure; the next two present the textbook and the schoolroom processes of study; while the last two (with the nine tables), which are the most interesting part of the work, state the results obtained by several methods of observation as to what continues to be the typical school practice and what is possible with children from the fourth to the seventh grades. The experiment of training some of the pupils tested in systematic study in order to show its possibility in general stands in need of greater control before it can be expected to yield results that would be either more uniform or accepted as conclusive. The author happily recognizes the limitations in this study. But it is important to be shown anew the regrettable situation that teaching too frequently leaves pupils helpless, and to have the theory of study illuminated by facts more or less negative. The early doom of "soft pedagogy" is not heralded by the discovery that "teachers lack a clear conception of what proper study is" (p. 66). Reading this monograph should be helpful to every teacher; but the reader will find difficulty in following the text and the tables which are not most conveniently arranged for ease of reference.

EDWARD FRANKLIN BUCHNER

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An Algebra for Secondary Schools. By E. R. HEDRICK, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Missouri. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Pp. x+421. $1.00.

The number of good scholars turning their hand to the preparation of secondary texts in mathematics is rapidly increasing. Something more than a dozen secondary texts in algebra and geometry have appeared from the press during the summer and autumn just passed, all of which purport to be recognizing the spirit of the new movements for the improvement of the teaching of mathematics in high schools and academies. The volume before us makes the common claim. The author alleges that while "it meets the entrance requirements of American colleges and universities generally, this book is written essentially for those for whom the high-school course is to be the last." A point of not a little importance has been gained of late years in

inducing men who prepare textbooks to take the point of view that the thing needed for high schools must be determined mainly by the requirements of students who are not going to colleges.

The distinctive features of this book are the metrical introductions to algebraic number; the early and extended use of graphs of numerous types; the care with which concepts are placed back of the operations applied to signed number; the condensation of certain topics, such as parentheses, into a much smaller compass than is usual; the great care given to work in the translation of English into algebra and algebra into English; the wide use of geometrical pictures to illuminate the algebra; the use of graphs in the teaching of simultaneous linear equations and quadratic equations rather than an appended chapter after the teaching service has been entirely performed, as is usually done by more timid teachers than Mr. Hedrick, and a rather full summary of the substance of the chapters. It should be mentioned that graphs are made to do valuable service in the presentation of logarithms. In the writer's opinion it is difficult to justify the treatment of logarithms as the last chapter of any school year. To make the subject of logarithms of value to a learner it is quite important that the development of the subject be followed up at once, by considerable application to calculations which impress the advantage gained by the use of logarithms.

There is also an appendix treating of detached coefficients, the remainder theorem as used in factoring, the factor theorem, choice and chance, permutations and combinations, factorials, Euclidean methods of H. C. F. and L. C. M., cube root and higher roots, limits, infinite series, imaginary and complex numbers, simultaneous quadratics graphically exhibited, and a summary of this rather heavy appendix. A valuable feature of the book is the tables of common weights and measures, including metric units with their English equivalents, also tables of geometrical mensuration formulas that come after the appendix, and then follows an index of a little over four pages.

As an example of the care with which the author presents some matters which are really difficult for the student but which the teacher usually passes over with no attention whatever, the following will serve: "A tin box is to be made from a square piece of tin by cutting out square corners and then folding up the flaps. Find the size of the piece of tin that must be used to make a box four inches high that must contain one hundred cubic inches volume. Let us first become familiar with the problem by trying several numbers. Suppose the original plate were eighteen inches square in the figure AB=BC=18 in., and we cut out the shaded corners each four inches square, etc."

After figuring the volume of the box from this trial it is found that it contains 400 cubic inches instead of 100 cubic inches, as required. Then the author suggests that it is easier to try the problem by calling the length of the required piece l and seeking to find l than to continue by this cut-and-try plan until the answer is happened upon. He then carefully carries through the solution of the problem on the unknown length l, getting the solution much after the customary fashion. Then he argues that the student must at the close of the solution "see which, if any, of the several possible answers are correct ones and if there may be answers that cannot possibly mean anything,

as seen above." In the reviewer's opinion, this is a skilful way of impressing the learner with the importance of the algebraic plan of introducing an unknown number to facilitate problem-solution. There are many good pedagogic things of the type just alluded to.

A general criticism against the book is that it is very highly condensed, the statements in many cases being very succinct, making the book pretty hard reading for the students of the first and second years of high-school work. There are some instances of too great punctiliousness for formal correctness of logic, and evidences of a little too much nervousness lest some college critics may not find the book sufficiently high toned mathematically. This, however, is a weakness that "leans to virtue's side." Perhaps President Hall would find this book less open to the objection of being padded with explanations to make the way plain for the easy-going student than are most textbooks used in the public schools today. It can hardly be said that Mr. Hedrick has shown in this excellent little book a desire to "whip two ounces of soap into two hogsheads of lather."

The publishers have done their part of the book well. Much good would come from replacing books of the prevailing type by such a book as Mr. Hedrick's. Every secondary teacher of algebra should study this book.

G. W. M.

The Eleanor Smith Music Course. By ELEANOR SMITH, Head of the Department of Music, School of Education, The University of Chicago. New York: American Book Co., 1908. Book I, pp. 112, $0.25; Book II, pp. 145, $0.30; Book III, pp. 192, $0.40; Book IV, pp. 255, $0.50.

It is with a sense of elation that one opens a book bearing the name of this author. Miss Smith has won for herself a place among those interested in the musical education of children which guarantees the value of what she offers. The material contained in this series is strikingly attractive both as to music and texts. Especially happy is its adaptation to the needs of our cosmopolitan schools through folk-songs of many lands, the texts of these being translations from the original. It is interesting to note that although carefully graded, the illustrative songs never depart from the high standard of excellence, even the exercises introducing and elaborating technical points having rich musical content. The first sixty-nine pages of Book I are devoted to short melodies for reading and writing, while rote-songs selected from German, French, Norwegian, Bohemian, Danish, as well as American sources complete a charming volume. Book II continues this sight-reading material and rote-songs while technical problems are introduced in well-arranged sequence. A preparation for two-part singing appears in the form of rounds and canons. In Book III, two-part songs are introduced. Studies by Taubert, Reinecke, and other well-known composers promise aesthetic pleasure while new problems are being solved. In Book IV an unusual group of songs for bass voices, by breezy texts and stirring melody, will satisfy the exacting taste of the larger boys. Taken together, the series is an important contribution to educative musical literature for children.

M. R. KERN

BOOKS RECEIVED

AMERICAN BOOK CO., NEW YORK

Nature Study by Grades. Teachers' Book for Primary Grades. By HORACE W. CUMMINGS. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 180. $1.00.

Essentials in Civil Government. A Textbook for Use in Schools. By S. E. FORMAN. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 224. $0.60.

Aiken's Music Course. In One Book. By WALTER H. AIKEN. Cloth. Pp. 208. $0.50.

Schiller's Jungfrau von Orleans. Edited, with Notes and Introduction, by WARREN W. FLORER. Cloth. Pp. 375. $0.70.

C. W. BARDEEN, SYRACUSE, N. Y.

Report on the Teaching of English in the United States. By M. ATKINSON WILLIAMS. Cloth. Pp. 88.

John Brody's Astral Body, and Other Stories About Schools. By C. W. BARDEEN. Cloth. Pp. 195.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., BOSTON

The Life of Abraham Lincoln, for Boys and Girls. By CHARLES W MOORES. Cloth. Illustrated. Pp. 132. $0.25.

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, NEW YORK

The Rhetoric of Oratory. By EDWIN DUBOIS SHURTER. Cloth. Pp. 309. $1.10.

A History of Education Before the Middle Ages. By FRANK PIERREPONT GRAVES. Cloth. Pp. 304. $1.10.

Kidnapped. "Macmillan's Pocket Classics." By ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by JOHN THOMPSON BROWN. Cloth. Pp. 271. $0.25.

The Spy. "Macmillan's Pocket Classics." By J. FENIMORE COOPER. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by SAMUEL THURBER, JR. Cloth. Pp. 424. $0.25.

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LITERATURE IN THE PERIODICALS[1]

IRENE WARREN
Librarian, School of Education, The University of Chicago

ABBOTT, ALLEN. High-school dramatics. School R. 17:119–25. (F. '09.)

BARTO, D. O. Problems in secondary-school agriculture. Sch. Sci. and Math. 9:226–34. (Mar. '09.)

BIRGE, EDWARD A. A change of educational emphasis. Atlan. 103:189–200. (F. '09.)

CALDWELL, OTIS W., GALLOWAY, T. W., AND NORRIS, N. W. A consideration of the principle that should determine the courses in biology in the secondary schools. Sch. Sci. and Math. 9:244–8. (Mar. '09.)

(The) California textbook plan. Jour. of Educa. Bost. 69:173–4. (18 F. '09.)

CARLETON, E. F. Public-school libraries of Oregon. Sch. and Home Educa. 28:207–9. (F. '09.)

CHANDLER, ELMA. Elementary science in the high school. School R. 17:89–96. (F. '09.)

CLAPP, HENRY LINCOLN. Self-government in public schools. Educa. 29: 335–44. (F. '09.)

CLUTE, WILLARD N. Making botany attractive. School R. 17:97–8. (F. '09.)

COULTER, JOHN M. What the university expects of the secondary school. School R. 17:73–84. (F. '09.)

CROWE, JOHN M., BROADUS, E. K., AND HOSIC, JAMES F. Report of conference committee on high-school English. School R. 17:85–8. (F. '09.)

DE GARMO, CHARLES. Relation of industrial to general education. School R. 17:145–53. (Mar. '09.)

FAGAN, JAMES O. The industrial dilemma. The railroads and education. Atlan. 103:326–35. (Mar. '09.)

FALKNER, ROLAND P. Elimination of pupils from school. Psycholog. Clinic. 2:255–9. (15 F. '09.)

GILES, F. M. The teaching of agriculture in the high school. School R. 17:154–65. (Mar. '09.)

[1] *Abbreviations:* Amer. Educa., American Education; Atlan., Atlantic Monthly; Educa., Education; El. Sch. T., Elementary School Teacher; Journ. of Educa. Bost., Journal of Education, Boston; Journ. of Geog., Journal of Geography; Out., Outlook; Pop. Sci. Mo., Popular Science Monthly; Psychlog. Clinic, Psychological Clinic; Sch. and Home Educa., School and Home Education; School R., School Review; Sch. Sci. and Math., School Science and Mathematics; Teach. Col. Rec., Teachers College Record.

GLOVER, KATHERINE. Working for an education in a southern school. Craftsman. 15:707–17. (Mar. '09.)

GUMMERE, FRANCIS B. A day with Professor Child. Atlan. 103:421–7. (Mar. '09.)

HALE, EDWARD EVERETT. Harvard. Out. 91:453–61. (Mar. '09.)

HOBBS, WILLIAM H. New laboratory methods for instruction in geography. Journ. of Geog. 7:97–104. (Ja. '09.)

HUTCHINS, JR., E. B. How may instruction in elementary chemistry be made more efficient? Sch. Sci. and Math. 9:252–61. (Mar. '09.)

LODGE, GONZALEZ. Vocabulary of high-school Latin. School R. 17:128. (F. '09.)

MADDOCKS, MILDRED. Schools of home economics. Good Housekeeping. 58:278–84. (Mar. '09.)

MANNY, FRANK A. American schools as seen by a Belgian educator. El. Sch. T. 9:322–7. (F. '09.)

MANNY, FRANK A. A study in adult education. School R. 17:174–7. (Mar. '09.)

MEAD, GEORGE H. Industrial education, the working-man, and the school. El. Sch. T. 9:369–84. (Mar. '09.)

Mental healing and the Emmanuel movement. Psycholog. Clinic. 2:212–24. (15 D. '08.)

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MYERS, G. W. The year's progress in mathematics in the university high school. School R. 17:99–119. (F. '09.)

NELSON, J. C. Discussion: testing high-school pupils' knowledge of the Bible. School R. 17:126–8. (F. '09.)

PAGE, MARY BOOMER. The present point of view of the plays and games of the kindergarten. El. Sch. T. 9:341–58. (Mar. '09.)

PAYNE, BERTHA. The kindergarten programme. II. El. Sch. T. 9:309–22. (F. '09.)

REMSEN, IRA. The problems of science teaching. Sch. Sci. and Math. 9:281–4. (Mar. '09.)

SMITH, DAVID EUGENE. The teaching of mathematics in the secondary schools of the United States. Sch. Sci. and Math. 9:203–19. (Mar. '09.)

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(The) teaching of arithmetic. Teach. Col. Rec. 10:1–100. (Ja. '09.)

TRAVIS, S. S. High-school fraternities. Amer. Educa. 11:301–5. (Mar. '09.)

WHITAKER, NELLIE COMINS. The physical needs of the grammar-school girl. El. Sch. T. 9:287–92. (F. '09.)

WOODHULL, JOHN F. How the public will solve our problems of science teaching. Sch. Sci. and Math. 9:267–84. (Mar. '09.)